1: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1940
FJ22 Nuer FJ22

439 head of cattle.[1] This trade was forbidden some years ago and has probably not a long history, because early writers give no information that might lead us to suppose that it went on previous to the reconquest of the Sudan and the Abyssinian conquest of Western Ethiopia. There was some ivory-trading on the Zeraf between Nuer and Arabs from the middle of the nineteenth century. Metal ornaments and venetian glass beads seem to have been offered in exchange. Nuer may have traded some tobacco, and possibly an occasional canoe, from the Anuak of the Baro and Gila rivers, but it is more likely that they usually acquired these objects by raiding. I do not discuss here the very small trade carried on to-day by Arab shopkeepers who live a hard, and generally unprofitable, life here and there on the main waterways. Nuer obtain from them spears, hoes, fish-hooks, ornaments, and occasionally an anvil, grindstone, &c., and they purchase skins of oxen, and sometimes oxen, from the Nuer. Nuer economy has not been much affected thereby. Nuer do not sell their labour.

We may conclude, therefore, that trade is a very unimportant social process among the Nuer. Many reasons can be adduced to explain this fact. I mention only a few. Nuer have nothing to trade except their cattle and have no inclination to dispose of these; all they greatly desire are more cattle, and, apart from the difficulty that they have nothing to offer in exchange for them, herds are more easily and pleasantly increased by raiding the Dinka; they are seldom on such friendly terms with their neighbours that trade can flourish between them, and, although there may have been sporadic exchange with Dinka and Anuak, it is probable that most objects obtained from these peoples were

[436] [489] spoil; they have no money, no markets, and no transport other than human porterage; &c. A further reason, and one that requires emphasis, is the dominant interest of the Nuer in their herds. This narrow focus of interest causes them to be inattentive to the products of other people, for which, indeed, they feel no need and often enough show contempt.

● 437 There is very little exchange within Nuerland itself, there being no high specialization and no diversity in the distribution of raw material. The only trading I have seen, apart from the exchange of small commodities and minor services mentioned in the next section, is the exchange of some cattle, mainly oxen, by the Lou for Eastern Gaajok grain in a famine year. I think it most unlikely that such exchanges went on before British occupation of the country, though there was, according to Nuer, sometimes an exchange of an animal for grain in bad years between persons of the same district.

[1] Bimbashi H. Gordon, *Sudan Intelligence Report*, no. 107, 1903.

8:Howell E, G-5 (1942-1944)1954
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4. TRADE AND LOANS

Trade has never been extensive among the Nuer. There is, of course, a division of labour according to sex, but there are few people who can be accounted specialist craftsmen. Individuals acquire the reputation for making certain specific objects with exceptional skill, but they rarely if ever belong to a family especially associated with such activities. This is an exceptional contrast to specialization in the spiritual sphere, for there are hereditary experts capable of dealing with almost any unusual phenomena: ritual experts, magicians, sooth-sayers and medicine-owners, who demand fees, often in cattle, for their services.

The reason lies, perhaps, in the extraordinary simplicity of Nuer material culture. Most things necessary for their migratory way of life (and this applies to all peoples who move with the seasons) can be made either from wood or grass or from the products of their cattle. Seasonal migration in any case precludes a high degree of virtuosity, for things are liable to breakage and are often an unnecessary encumbrance. Moreover the Nuer, who do not use their animals for transport, must carry everything by hand.

Certain objects were of relatively high value, and were exchanged for cattle or sheep and goats. Nowadays, however, most of these articles—hoes, spears, ornaments and the like—can be obtained for cash, and disputes do not often arise in the courts except over the sale of grain.

Trade in Cattle

Trade in cattle is clearly increasing as a cash economy becomes more important to the Nuer but, as yet, cattle are rarely sold except [illegible] the purchase of grain in an emergency. Its significance [illegible] the Jonglei Investigation Team's *Third Interim Report* (1948) is worth quoting, for the figures given, although taken from all Nilotic inhabitants of the Upper Nile Province, include all the Nuer:

> The disposal of surplus livestock is governed by private, family, and tribal circumstances, and is at present tied up with the need to find cash; this is required mainly for the purchase of grain and veterinary vaccines and, to a small extent, for the payment of taxes. There are four channels through which the inhabitants can dispose of their animals:
>
> (*a*) By sale to the Veterinary Laboratory at Malakal, where they will be used to produce cattle-plague vaccine and serum.
>
> (*b*) By sale to Malakal butchers for local consumption.
>
> (*c*) By export to Equatoria Province, in which case most of them will be butchered in Juba.
>
> (*d*) By export northwards to the markets of Kosti and Omdurman.
>
> In the majority of cases all trade is carried out through merchants as intermediaries. . . . Previously it had often been necessary for the District Commissioner concerned to exercise pressure before the local inhabitants could be induced to sell.

8:Howell E, G-5 (1942-1944)1954
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Numbers of Cattle sold in or exported from Malakal in Yearly Totals from 1935 to 1947 Inclusive

1935	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1941	1942	1943	1944	1945	1946	1947
2,586	2,413	1,590	2,385	2,817	2,116	2,283	3,124	2,204	3,012	5,944	5,380	5,278[1]

When it is remembered that the Nuer alone possess over half a million head of cattle, these sales figures are not impressive, but the increase in sales is significant.

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There is still relatively little internal trade in cattle among the Nuer. Cattle are not bought and sold in local markets, and disputes over prices or payment rarely come before the courts. Cattle continue to be exchanged, however, and there are still customary rates of exchange.

Exchanges and Loans

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The Nuer word for exchange is *gual*, and is used specifically in connexion with the exchange of cattle. '*Ce thak gual he dou*', 'he exchanged a bull for a cow-calf.' The expression, which is often loosely applied, refers to a direct exchange. In some cases cattle may be exchanged for sheep. It is generally recognized that a large bull or ox is worth a cow-calf, and a cow-calf is worth anything from 10–20 sheep. Such transactions are frequent.[2] In certain situations of spiritual danger—famine, sickness, or death—or in any situation which demands a sacrifice, a sacrificial animal is necessary, and this may not be immediately available. In such circumstances a man will be forced to make an immediate exchange: a cow-calf for a bull-calf, and so on. More

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probably he will borrow a bull or in some cases a ram on the understanding that he will pay the owner its recognized equivalent at some later date. This is in the nature of a loan, and involves some measure of interest. A full-grown ox is worth at least a cow-calf if the debt is discharged at some later date, a ram is worth a bull-calf, and so on. In this case the word *ngual* is usually employed. The word *ngual* implies the passage of time before the transaction is complete, and is thus best translated as 'loan'.

In many cases a Nuer will specify beforehand that he will pay the first cow-calf born to such and such a cow. Such loans are a frequent cause of litigation, for a man is often unwilling to repay the loan after his immediate need has been met, or unable to do so.

[1] Jonglei Investigation Team, *Third Interim Report*, 1948, p. 20.

[2] Among some Nuer and Dinka tribes there is a considerable trade in this manner with Baggara Arabs from the north. Cow-calves are brought in by the latter and exchanged for large oxen, which are then driven north and sold in the markets. This form of trade is, however, limited, for it seems that Baggara cattle will not survive in the areas south of approximately latitude 9°, and though the Nuer have been tempted to try, the experiment has usually been unsuccessful. In any case, there are no statistics available because the practice is not encouraged by the Government owing to the spread of disease.

14: Huffman M-5 (no date) 1931
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Every one helps in the work of the harvest, for the stalks must be cut down and the heads cut off and placed upon a rack which has been placed in the yard for that purpose. The grains of dura are pounded out, then it becomes the property of the housewife after the seed dura has been selected and stored for the coming year.

The stalks of dura are often kept for fuel or for making fences.

If the rainy season has started early there may be a second crop of dura, but this seldom happens.

The wife must pound the dura and sift it to get the bran out. She pounds it in a hole in the ground which she has plastered with mud, using a long pole. She usually chants a song as she pounds, the thud of the pounding serving as a low accompaniment to her song.

The dura is cooked like mush and forms the main part of the food of a Nuer. He eats it without salt or sugar; sometimes he has a little milk on it. Or the dura may be soaked and then allowed to sour a little, and then cooked, in order to give the family a little variety in their meals.

Corn is also eaten, usually being parched. They also chew the dura stalk or the sugar-cane stalk (if they have it) for the sugar they find in them.

Some wild tubers are eaten, and some kinds of wild greens. Beans are also eaten, but I know of no Nuer who plants them in his own village. Men consider these wild greens effeminate and will not eat them except in times of famine. Sometimes in times of famine they gather certain wild grass seeds and cook them as a food.

The Nuer is not inclined to plant any large field and thus be assured of a surplus of food. The Arab merchant comes to his village when the dura is threshed and shows such an array of beads and cloths that the Nuer is tempted

14: Huffman M-5 (no date) 1931
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262 to part with some of his dura. So want is never far from
437 the door of the Nuer home.

273 A drink—more or less intoxicating, according to the amount one drinks of it—is made from dura. Nuer are very fond of it. They frequently get intoxicated enough to fight when they have had their fill of it.

THE NUER IN BUSINESS

241 Few Nuer men engage in any business that helps others. Practically every Nuer man has a plot of ground where he may raise the family's supply of dura, but he seldom thinks of raising any to sell.

The Government has tried to interest the Nuer in raising cotton, but with no marked success so far.

326 A few men are blacksmiths and make the spears, fishing spears, and ornaments out of iron, brass, or wire. They sharpen old hoes, spears and such like, and make good money in this line. The equipment a blacksmith requires is decidedly meagre. A piece of iron to hammer on, a piece of iron to hammer with, and a fire, constitute the usual equipment, although one occasionally sees a chisel.

342 Some men make a reputation for themselves by their skill as roofers. The roof of a Nuer house when new is a very pretty piece of work, being quite smooth and even. It takes a good roofer to fix a roof so that the heavy tropical rains do not go through it. Men roof the houses, but the making of the long grass eaves to protect the wall from rain is considered as women's work and is left for them to do.

323 Women sometimes make earthen pots and sell or
458 trade them to others who are not so well versed in this art, but practically all women are more or less proficient in pottery.

16: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1956
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is at fault if it does not fulfil its part of the bargain. A costly sacrifice having been made, *cuong*, right or justice, is on the human side in the matter. Thus the man of whom I was speaking above said during his harangue that after all the sacrifices he had made to the spirit *deng* on account of sickness in his family, his little daughter had been bitten by a snake and died. He had given all these oxen to *deng* and look what had happened! He felt aggrieved and had consulted a prophet of *deng* who had told him that if the spirit had taken his daughter it would compensate him for his loss; and it had indeed done so by giving him twins: *'ca col e kwoth ke cuek'*, 'it [the death of the daughter] was compensated by the spirit with twins'. The use of the word *col*, as will be seen later, here implies that the spirit was in debt to the man. This Nuer Job complained that the spirit had only compensated him because he told it that he had had enough of it and that it could take all his children if it pleased, for then he would have finished with it because it would have nothing more to take from him.

The word *kok* occurs in the other Nilotic languages with much the same range of meaning, outside its sacrificial usage, as it has today in Nuer, for one most frequently hears it used today to describe the purchasing of goods from an Arab merchant. That a word which had chiefly, and perhaps primarily, a sacrificial meaning should come to be employed for the recent practice of buying something from a shop, a commercial sense it has also in other Nilotic tongues, sheds some light not only on Nuer ideas about trading but also on their ideas about sacrifice. Since the present range of meaning of the word includes buying and selling one might say that God or a spirit is 'bought' by sacrifice. The dangers of translation that beset one at every step in an attempt to understand and make intelligible Nuer religious ideas are here very apparent, for once we use the word 'bought' the associations it has among ourselves rush in to colour the Nuer conception. But Nuer do not regard purchase from an Arab merchant in the way in which we regard purchase from a shop. It is not to them an impersonal transaction, and they have no idea of price and currency in our sense. Their idea of a purchase is that you give something to a merchant who is thereby put under an obligation to help you. At the same time you ask him for something you need from his shop and he ought to give it to you because, by taking your gift, he has entered into a reciprocal relationship with

16: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1956
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782 437 196 you. Hence *kok* has the sense of either 'to buy' or 'to sell'. The two acts are an expression of a single relationship of reciprocity. As an Arab merchant regards the transaction rather differently misunderstandings arise. In the Nuer way of looking at the matter what is involved in an exchange of this kind is a relation between persons rather than between things. It is the merchant who is 'bought' rather than the goods, just as it is God or a spirit who is bounden by sacrifice; or it can be better put by saying that the partners, Nuer and merchant, man and God, *kok* each other. The general notion conveyed by the word is therefore that of exchange. This sense covers, as do our own words 'ransom' and 'redemption', both religious and commercial usages. In both there is the idea of a relationship expressed in gift and counter-gift. The mere fact that the word has been made use of to denote what we regard as plain and simple commerce shows that some idea of a bargain is implied in its sacrificial use. Whatever else it may also be, sacrifice can be regarded, as Socrates says in the *Euthyphro*, as being in a sense a 'commercial technique', a way of doing business between gods and men. A bargain is struck. There is an exchange. This is further shown by the use of the verb *luel*, not in reference to any particular kind or situation of sacrifice but in invocations at personal sacrifices. A consideration of its use shows us better what sort of exchange Nuer sacrifice is.

782 755 One of Professor Westermann's texts records a sacrificial invocation made on behalf of a sick man. I would translate it as follows: 'God, what is this? Leave him with us; let him recover. Turn about, take thy cow. It has been decreed for the life. It is thou who hast spoken thus. Take the cow that it may be in exchange for the life (*bi je luele yei*). It is thou who hast created us; it is the cow which is exchanged for life (*e bi yang a luel ne yei*). Take the goat and the cucumber; and let him recover! In what have we erred? Give us the life. Thou art our father. Why must we always suffer? Give us the life, we pray thee, our father.'[1]

437 196 In other contexts the word *luel* means 'to exchange' or 'to change'. Something takes the place of another thing equal to it —a simple exchange of two things considered to be of more or less

[1] Op. cit., pp. 116–17. The sentence 'Take the goat and the cucumber' would not occur in any actual invocation, for the two things would not be sacrificed at the same time. Whoever spoke the text has inserted a gloss in the sense of 'Take the cow [ox], that is to say, the goat or the cucumber' [as the case may be].

16: Evans-Pritchard E-5 (1931, 1936) 1956
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equal value by the persons concerned in the exchange, as when a man who is leaving his neighbourhood exchanges his old byre for a bull calf or when a man exchanges an ox with certain markings desired by his partner to the exchange for one with his own favourite markings. The difference between *kok* and *luel* is that between the reciprocal relation between persons in an exchange and equivalence of objects exchanged. In either case the action is immediate, unlike that implied by use of the words *ngual*, to borrow, and *gwal*, to lend. In loans a man makes a gift and the recipient later returns it or something of greater value. There are two distinct and separate movements between which there is a long passage of time. In its piacular context, therefore, the word *luel* means that the life of the victim is exchanged in the moment of its immolation for the life of a man. In the sacrificial situation the two things are of equal value, so that the one can be substituted for the other. This puts men and cattle in a very peculiar relationship to each other, a matter I discuss in Chapter X.

In personal and piacular sacrifices the animals are substitutions for men. To this extent sacrifice is an exchange, but it is also something very much more than just a simple exchange. It is not a simple idea at all but a very complex one in which many other elements are present. I discuss the problem in more general terms later, but we may here note how other terms are used to describe personal sacrifices which emphasize rather the related ideas of propitiation, expiation, atonement, *and purification.*

Sometimes the word *lor* is used to describe a sacrifice. The word means 'to go to meet', perhaps its most common usage being to describe the formal greeting that Nuer, especially women, make to a visitor of importance when they go from their homes to receive him outside their homestead or village. The word has therefore the further sense of 'to honour', as would appear to be the case also in Dinka and other Nilotic tongues. But in the religious sense of the word people go out of their villages to meet a plague or other danger not with the purpose of bringing it to their homes to give it hospitality there but with the opposite purpose of preventing it from entering their homes. They go out to meet and stay a plague or murrain with sacrifice. They say '*bane je luor*', 'let us go out to meet it'. The well-known prophet Ngundeng of the Lou tribe did this in times of epidemics, sometimes, I was told, sacrificing dozens of oxen and leaving their carcasses in